

NITROGEN FIXATION, HYDROGEN CYCLING, AND ELECTRON TRANSPORT KINETICS IN *TRICHODESMIUM ERYTHRAEUM* (CYANOBACTERIA) STRAIN IMS101¹

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This study describes the relationships between dinitrogen (N₂) fixation, dihydrogen (H₂) production, and electron transport associated with photosynthesis and respiration in the marine cyanobacterium *Trichodesmium erythraeum* Ehrenb. strain IMS101. The ratio of H₂ produced:N₂ fixed (H₂:N₂) was controlled by the light intensity and by the light spectral composition and was affected by the growth irradiance level. For *Trichodesmium* cells grown at 50 μmol photons · m⁻² · s⁻¹, the rate of N₂ fixation, as measured by acetylene reduction, saturated at light intensities of 200 μmol photons · m⁻² · s⁻¹. In contrast, net H₂ production continued to increase with light levels up to 1,000 μmol photons · m⁻² · s⁻¹. The H₂:N₂ ratios increased monotonically with irradiance, and the variable fluorescence measured using a fast repetition rate fluorometer (FRRF) revealed that this increase was accompanied by a progressive reduction of the plastoquinone (PQ) pool. Additions of 2,5-dibromo-3-methyl-6-isopropyl-p-benzoquinone (DBMIB), an inhibitor of electron transport from PQ pool to PSI, diminished both N₂ fixation and net H₂ production, while the H₂:N₂ ratio increased with increasing level of PQ pool reduction. In the presence of 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea (DCMU), nitrogenase activity declined but could be prolonged by increasing the light intensity and by removing the oxygen supply. These results on the coupling of N₂ fixation and H₂ cycling in *Trichodesmium* indicate how light intensity and light spectral quality of the open ocean can influence the H₂:N₂ ratio and modulate net H₂ production.

Key index words: bioenergetics; hydrogen; nitrogen fixation; photosynthesis; *Trichodesmium*

Abbreviations: σPSII, functional absorption cross-section; φPSII, the efficiency of charge separation; C₂H₂, acetylene; C₂H₄, ethylene; DBMIB, 2,5-dibromo-3-methyl-6-isopropyl-p-benzoquinone; DCMU, 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea; FQR, ferredoxin:quinone oxidoreductase; FRRF, fast repetition rate fluorometer; G3P, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate; Ndh, NAD(P) dehydrogenase; OPP, oxidative pentose phosphate cycle; PC, plastocyanine; PETR, photosynthetic electron transport rate; PQ, plastoquinone; RC, reaction centers

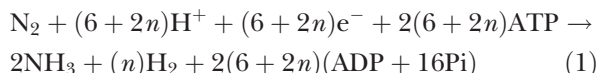
Trichodesmium is a filamentous, nonheterocystous cyanobacterium inhabiting the surface waters of tropical and subtropical marine environments (Capone et al. 1997). In the oligotrophic ocean, the fixation of N₂ by *Trichodesmium* and other diazotrophs is an important source of new nitrogen (N) that fuels primary production and export in the surface seawater (Dugdale and Goering 1967, Karl 2007). Among the diazotrophs, *Trichodesmium* has the distinctive metabolic capability of fixing N₂ during daylight while simultaneously fixing carbon dioxide (CO₂) and releasing oxygen (O₂). O₂ is a potent inhibitor of the enzyme nitrogenase, which catalyzes N₂ fixation (Postgate 1982). However, by synchronizing N₂ fixation with photosynthesis, *Trichodesmium* is able to supply nitrogenase with solar-derived energy (Berman-Frank et al. 2007).

In addition to the marine N cycle, *Trichodesmium* and other N₂-fixing cyanobacteria also contribute to the marine hydrogen (H₂) cycle. H₂ is formed during N₂ fixation when a N₂ molecule binds to the molybdenum-iron protein of the nitrogenase enzyme complex, prior to the reduction of N₂ to ammonia (NH₃) (Lowe and Thorneley 1984). The

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most energetically favorable stoichiometry predicts that at least one mole of H_2 is produced for every mole of N_2 reduced:



where $n \geq 1.0$, hydrogen ion is H^+ , electron is e^- , adenosine triphosphate is ATP, adenosine diphosphate is ADP, and inorganic phosphate is Pi (Simpson and Burris 1984). The evolution of H_2 during N_2 fixation by marine diazotrophs is considered to be responsible for the supersaturation of dissolved H_2 in the surface waters of subtropical and tropical oceans (Scranton 1983, Conrad 1988, Moore et al. 2009). Dissolved H_2 concentrations typically range from 1 to 2 $nmol \cdot L^{-1}$, which is $\sim 300\%$ – 900% supersaturated relative to atmospheric equilibrium (Seiler and Schmidt 1974).

Although it is unclear what controls the net H_2 production during N_2 fixation, it appears that diazotrophs counteract the loss of this potential energy by re-assimilating a variable portion of H_2 via uptake hydrogenase (Tamagnini et al. 2007). The electrons generated from H_2 oxidation are transferred from uptake hydrogenase to PQ supplementing the photosynthetic electron flow mediated by PSI. These electrons may (i) contribute to energy production through the mechanisms of cyclic electron flow around PSI, (ii) replenish reducing power in the form of NADH, (iii) recycle electrons in the N_2 -fixation pathway, (iv) undergo a “Knallgas” reaction generating ATP with the simultaneous consumption of O_2 (Eisbrenner and Bothe 1979), or (v) complete the respiratory pathway toward the terminal cytochrome oxidase. The recycling of H_2 evolved during N_2 fixation explains why the equimolar ratio of H_2 produced to N_2 fixed ($H_2:N_2$) predicted in equation 1 is not observed during *in vivo* analysis of diazotrophs cultures (Bothe et al. 1980, Wilson et al. 2010a).

Dihydrogen production and N_2 fixation associated with *Trichodesmium* spp. has been measured in field-collected colonies (Saino and Hattori 1982, Scranton 1983, Scranton et al. 1987) and in laboratory-maintained cultures of *T. erythraeum* IMS101 (Punshon and Moore 2008, Wilson et al. 2010a). The reported $H_2:N_2$ production ratios for *Trichodesmium* reach 0.3, indicating that 30% of the H_2 evolved during the N_2 -fixation process is not re-assimilated. Such a high fraction of unassimilated H_2 is suggestive of an inefficient N_2 -fixation process with respect to energy utilization (Schubert and Evans 1976). High H_2 fluxes have also been identified in other cyanobacteria (e.g., *Nostoc*, *Anabaena*; Schütz et al. 2004, Allahverdiyeva et al. 2010) and more recently in the unicellular cyanobacterium *Cyanothece* sp. (Bandyopadhyay et al. 2010).

This study describes the relationship between net H_2 production and N_2 fixation in *T. erythraeum* IMS101. Both net H_2 production and N_2 fixation

varied as a function of the intensity and spectral composition of light. A series of manipulation experiments was used to demonstrate a relationship between the supply of light-derived energy and the electron transport kinetics associated with the level of PQ pool reduction.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Culture conditions. Cultures of *T. erythraeum* strain IMS101 were grown in 500 mL culture flasks using YBC II (Yi-Bu Chen) medium (pH 8.0 and salinity of 34) (Chen et al. 1996), at 26°C with a 12 h square-wave light:dark (L:D) cycle and a light intensity of 50 $\mu mol photons \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$. A subculture of *Trichodesmium* was also maintained at 500 $\mu mol photons \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$ for a period of 5 d using an array of high-intensity blue and green light emitting diodes (LEDs) before conducting light intensity manipulation experiments. The growth of the cultures was monitored daily by measurements of *in vivo* fluorescence using a Turner Designs fluorometer (TD-700, Turner Inc., Sunnyvale, CA, USA). Experiments were always conducted on *Trichodesmium* cultures when they were in exponential growth phase. Furthermore, all the manipulation experiments were conducted at least 3 h after the onset of the light period and 2 h before the dark period. During this timeframe, C_2H_4 production, net H_2 production, and the variable fluorescence due to endogenous diel rhythms are relatively stable (Fig. 1), and changes in the diazotrophic and photosynthetic activity are considered to be a result of the experimental manipulations.

Experimental conditions. The stock cultures were transferred to borosilicate glass vials for experimental manipulation. For each experiment, cultures were analyzed continuously for ethylene (C_2H_4) production, net H_2 production, and variable fluorescence (as described in the “Analytical configuration” section) for up to 6 h. The advantages of having a high-resolution data output are countered by the restriction of analyzing a single subculture for a particular experiment. Therefore, replicate measurements were conducted on separate days using independent cultures. The data presented in the “Results” section are representative examples of each experiment with typically a single replicate.

Analytical configuration. The suite of analytical measurements included net H_2 production, N_2 fixation measured by acetylene (C_2H_2) reduction, and electron transport kinetics

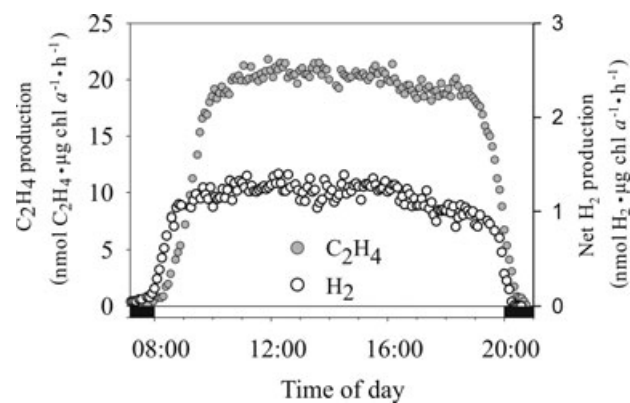


FIG. 1. Diel profile of C_2H_4 production and net H_2 production by *Trichodesmium* maintained at 26°C and 50 $\mu mol photons \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$ on a 12:12 light:dark cycle. The manipulation experiments (Figs. 2–7) were conducted between 3 and 9 h into the light period.

measured using FRRF, described in detail below. The analyses ran simultaneously providing online, real-time measurements at 120 and 240 s time intervals for H₂ production and C₂H₂ reduction, and 10 s intervals for FRRF-based photosynthetic characteristics including the functional absorption cross-section (σ_{PSII}), the efficiency of charge separation (ϕ_{PSII}), and the kinetics of photosynthetic electron transport rate (PETR). These experiments extended for periods of a few hours and were always terminated 2 h prior to the onset of the dark period, before N₂ fixation begins to decrease. Attention was also paid to ensure identical experimental conditions in H₂ production, N₂ fixation, and photosynthetic measurements, as each was performed on separate subsamples of the *Trichodesmium* culture. For net H₂ production and C₂H₂ reduction measurements, a typical volume of 40 mL of *Trichodesmium* culture in a crimp-sealed 76 mL borosilicate glass vial was maintained at 26°C using a heating block and illuminated with an overhead light source consisting of three blue (470 nm) and three green (510 nm) LEDs (Lumileds LXHL-NB98 and LXHL-NM98, respectively, Philips Lumileds, San Jose, CA, USA). The light was redirected toward the side walls of incubation vials with a set of mirrors positioned at 45° from the light source, and the light distribution was measured with a scalar PAR irradiance sensor (QSL-2101; Biospherical Instruments Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). For FRRF, 20 mL of *Trichodesmium* culture in a crimp-sealed 76 mL borosilicate glass vial was incubated under identical light conditions in the sample chamber of the FRRF instrument. Net H₂ production was quantified using a reduced gas analyzer (RGA) (Peak Laboratories, Mountain View, CA, USA) as previously described (Wilson et al. 2010a).

Measurements of C₂H₂ reduction were made using an online gas chromatography (GC) system (Staal et al. 2001), which incorporated several minor modifications as previously reported (Wilson et al. 2010a). Nitrogenase activity is expressed in terms of C₂H₄ production, except when rates of N₂ fixation are compared to net H₂ production. To convert C₂H₄ production rates to N₂ fixation, a ratio of 4 mol of C₂H₄ produced per mol of N₂ reduced was used (Capone 1993). Variable fluorescence was measured using a fourth-generation bench-top FRRF, which measures fluorescence transients induced by a series of subsaturating excitation pulses from a bank of high-intensity LEDs to derive photosynthetic parameters (Kolber et al. 1998). This instrument was modified to operate at excitation wavelengths of 445, 470, 503, and 530 nm (with 20, 25, 30, and 35 nm half bandwidths, respectively) to measure spectrally resolved functional absorption cross-section and to provide spectrally resolved background illumination at these wavelengths. The FRRF was used to determine the photochemical quantum yield (F_v/F_m), which is the ratio of the maximum change in variable fluorescence (F_v) to the maximum fluorescence yield (F_m). This value was determined from the initial dark-adapted fluorescence (F_0) and F_m when all PSII reaction centers (RC) are photochemically reduced ($F_v/F_m = (F_m - F_0)/F_m$). The functional absorption cross-section of PSII (σ_{PSII}) was calculated according to Kolber et al. (1998). The steady-state electron transfer rates were calculated as

$$\text{ETR}(\lambda_e) = E(\lambda_e) \cdot (F_m - F_s)/(F_m - F_0) \cdot \sigma_{\text{PSII}}(\lambda_e) \quad (2)$$

where λ_e is the excitation wavelength for both the ambient illumination and for pulsed light used to measure the photosynthetic characteristics. The level of PQ pool reduction was calculated as a function of photochemical quenching

$$qp = (F_m - F_s)/(F_m - F_0) \quad (3)$$

based on the empirically derived relationship between the level of QA reduction and PQ pool reduction. Chl *a* concentrations were measured at the beginning of each

experiment. Triplicate aliquots of cultures were filtered onto 25 mm GF/F filters (Whatman, USA), and the chl *a* was extracted in 5 mL of 90% acetone for 24 h at -20°C before being analyzed using a Turner Designs Model 10-AU fluorometer (Strickland and Parsons 1972).

Effects of light intensity. The effect of short-term changes in light intensity on the relationship between N₂ fixation, H₂ production, and PQ redox state was investigated by incrementally increasing the ambient light intensity over 10 discrete light levels ranging from 25 to 1,000 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. After an initial adjustment period at 25 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, which lasted up to 2 h, the light intensity was increased at 30 min intervals. The physiological responses in the net H₂ and C₂H₄ evolution to increasing light regime were evident within the first 10 min of the irradiance perturbations. The effect of increasing light intensity was also investigated in *Trichodesmium* cultures that have been maintained under an elevated light level of 500 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ for a period of 5 d. The physiological status and the extent of photoinhibition in the high-light grown culture were analyzed using FRRF measurements. Subsamples were reverted back to low-light level (50 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) on six separate occasions during the diel cycle, which covered both light and dark periods, and the response in F_v/F_m analyzed.

Effects of spectral composition. The effect of spectral composition of the ambient light was investigated by alternating between blue light (470 nm, 30 nm half bandwidth) and green light (530 nm, 30 nm half bandwidth). Prior to the experiment, cells were adapted to blue light at 50 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ for 2 h. The alternating pattern of blue and green light was applied at 30 min intervals. The light intensity was subsequently increased to 300 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (which exceeds the saturation level of 200 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ for C₂H₄ production), and again the color of the light was alternated every 30 min between blue and green wavelengths.

Effects of DCMU addition. To examine the effect of light on the H₂:N₂ ratio in absence of PSII activity, the inhibitor DCMU was added to *Trichodesmium* samples maintained at 26°C and 50 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. DCMU prevents the flow of electrons from PSII to PQ, disrupting the oxidative water splitting (Bothe and Loos 1972). DCMU was added to a final concentration of 1 $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$, which was confirmed by FRRF to fully block the flow of water-derived photosynthetic electrons to the PQ pool. Two additional manipulation experiments were conducted in the presence of DCMU. In the first experiment, the light was increased to 300 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ to examine the effects of light on the rate of N₂ fixation in the absence of water-derived electrons. In the second experiment, the O₂ was removed from the incubation vessel to investigate the redistribution of organic-carbon-derived electrons between nitrogenase and the terminal cytochrome oxidase. These manipulations also served to confirm that the presence of DCMU at 1 $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ concentration did not affect cellular metabolism beyond disruption of the photosynthetic electron from water to PQ pool.

Effects of DBMIB additions. To further investigate the influence of the redox state of the PQ pool on N₂ fixation, the inhibitor DBMIB was added to *Trichodesmium* samples maintained at 26°C under 50 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ blue (470 nm, 30 nm half bandwidth) light. DBMIB blocks the transfer of electrons from the PQ pool to cytochrome b₆/f (Eisbrenner and Bothe 1979). The objective was to manipulate the level of PQ pool reduction using varying concentrations of DBMIB while maintaining constant illumination. In the control experiments the FRRF data indicated that 3 $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ (final concentration) DBMIB was sufficient to fully reduce PQ pool under 50 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ of ambient light (data not shown). DBMIB was added at ~30 min intervals in

0.5 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ increments to a final concentration of 2.5 $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$.

RESULTS

Cultures of *T. erythraeum* maintained on a 12:12 L:D light regime at 50 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ grew at 0.2–0.25 d^{-1} . The time series profiles of C_2H_4 and net H_2 production exhibited distinct diel cycles (Fig. 1). C_2H_4 production increased rapidly after the onset of the light period reaching a maximum of $22 \pm 5 \text{ nmol } \text{C}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ (mean \pm standard deviation [SD] derived from the analysis of three independent cultures) during the middle of the light period. Net H_2 production was coincident with C_2H_4 production, achieving a maximum rate of $1.2 \pm 0.4 \text{ nmol } \text{H}_2 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ (mean \pm SD based on the analysis of three independent cultures). Both C_2H_4 and net H_2 production in *Trichodesmium* were maintained throughout most of the light period, decreasing 1–2 h before the onset of the dark period. During the light period, the photosynthetic quantum yield (F_v/F_m) ranged from 0.3 in the cultures maintained at 500 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ to 0.58 in cultures grown at 50 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$.

Trichodesmium cultures grown at 50 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ displayed two distinct phases in the rate of C_2H_4 production in response to increasing light intensity (Fig. 2). At light intensities ranging from 25 to 200 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, C_2H_4 production increased from 12 to 30 $\text{nmol } \text{C}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$. At light intensities in excess of 200 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, C_2H_4 production stabilized and displayed no further increase. Net H_2 production also displayed two distinct phases with response to increasing light intensity. Between 25 and 200 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, H_2 production increased 4-fold from 0.3 to 1.3 $\text{nmol } \text{H}_2 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$. At light intensity exceeding 200 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, net H_2 production continued to increase, but at a reduced rate, reaching 2.2 $\text{nmol } \text{H}_2 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ at 1,000 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. Increasing light intensity also induced a progressive increase in the PQ pool redox state, reaching a maximum of 84% at 1,000 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 2b). The electron transport rate reached a maximum of 263 electrons $\cdot \text{RCII}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ at 750 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ before declining slightly at 1,000 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 2b). Overall, the F_v/F_m decreased steadily from 0.57 to 0.16 as the light intensity reached a level of 1,000 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 2c).

Trichodesmium cultures maintained at 500 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ for 5 d displayed a different response to increasing light intensity compared to *Trichodesmium* grown at 50 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 3). The light-dependent phase of C_2H_4 production extended to 350 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$

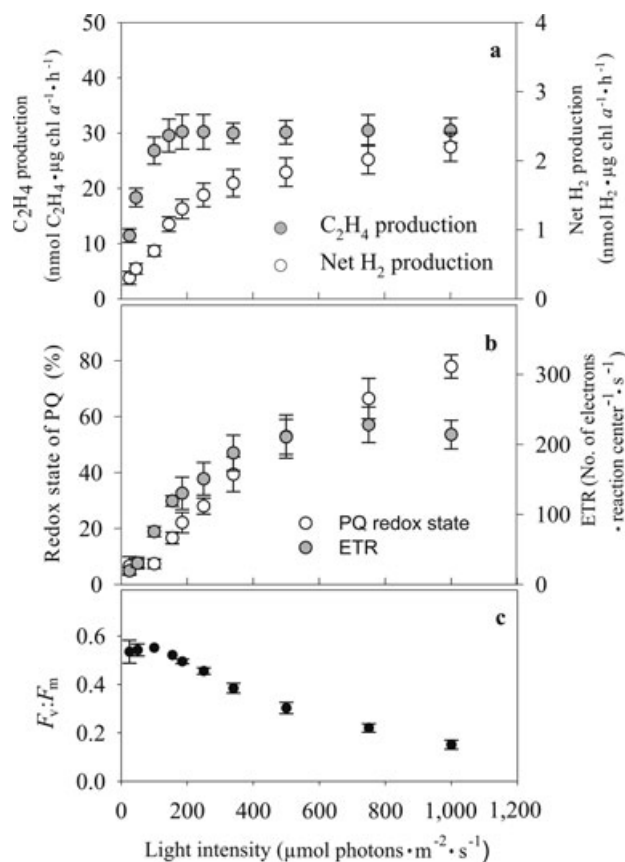


FIG. 2. The influence of light intensity on (a) C_2H_4 and net H_2 production, (b) the redox state of the plastoquinone pool and the electron transport rate, and (c) F_v/F_m , for cultures of *Trichodesmium* maintained at 50 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ on a 12:12 light:dark cycle. The error bars represent ± 1 SD.

$\text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ increasing from 12 to 38 $\text{nmol } \text{C}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$. Increase in light intensity to 1,000 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ further raised C_2H_4 production, albeit at smaller rate, from 40 to 42 $\text{nmol } \text{C}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ (Fig. 3a). Net H_2 production increased 5-fold from 0.5 to 2.7 $\text{nmol } \text{H}_2 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ between 25 and 1,000 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. Increasing light intensity also induced a progressive increase in the PQ pool redox state, reaching a maximum of 86% at 1,000 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 3b). The maximum electron transport rate of 378 electrons $\cdot \text{RCII}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ occurred at 500 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 3b). The F_v/F_m decreased steadily from 0.37 to 0.07 at a light intensity of 1,000 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 3c). The photoinhibitory effects resulting from exposure to the high-light intensity were examined using FRRF. After a subsample of the high-light-acclimated culture was placed under a low-light level (50 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$), the cells displayed 80% recovery from photoinhibition within 120 min (data not shown). Repeated measurements throughout the diel cycle revealed that photoinhibition was most

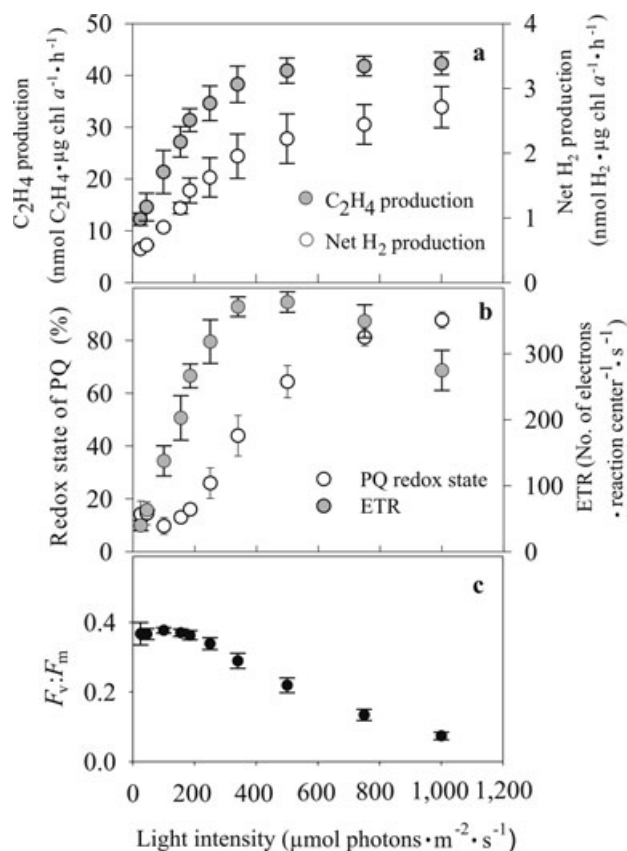


FIG. 3. The influence of light intensity on (a) C_2H_4 and net H_2 production, (b) the redox state of the plastoquinone pool and the electron transport rate, and (c) F_v/F_m , for cultures of *Trichodesmium* that had been exposed to 500 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ for a period of 5 d on a 12:12 light:dark cycle. The error bars represent ± 1 SD.

pronounced within the first hour of the light period when the F_v/F_m signal was $\sim 60\%$ depressed compared with the dark period.

Alternating the spectral composition between green and blue light affected both C_2H_4 and net H_2 production and modified the redox state of the PQ pool (Fig. 4). The results from replicating this experiment on a separate occasion are in the supplementary material (Fig. S1). At 100 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ of blue light, C_2H_4 production reached 23 $\text{nmol C}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$, and H_2 production was 0.9 $\text{nmol H}_2 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$. Switching to 100 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ of green light induced an increase in C_2H_4 production to 26 $\text{nmol C}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ and an increase in H_2 production to 1.3 $\text{nmol H}_2 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$. This pattern was consistently observed during several cycles of alternating between blue and green light. During the third “blue light” period (Fig. 4), the light intensity was raised to 300 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, which caused an increase in C_2H_4 production to 30 $\text{nmol C}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ and an increase in H_2 production to 1.6 $\text{nmol H}_2 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$.

$\text{chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$. The differences in C_2H_4 production were minimal between blue and green light at 300 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. However, net H_2 production still displayed oscillation with an amplitude of 0.3–1.9 $\text{nmol H}_2 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ when changing light color.

The addition of DCMU had a negative effect on the rate of C_2H_4 and net H_2 production in *Trichodesmium*. Under a light intensity of 50 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, the initial level of C_2H_4 production following the addition of DCMU (Fig. 5) remained constant for ~ 10 min and then decreased steadily during the next 60 min from 12 to 4 $\text{nmol C}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$. The increase in light intensity to 300 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 5) temporarily increased C_2H_4 production by $\sim 20\%$, which subsequently stabilized at 4 $\text{nmol C}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ for 90 min. After this period, C_2H_4 production resumed its downward trend and completely ceased 3 h after the addition of DCMU to the culture. Net H_2 production declined faster than C_2H_4 production, reaching near-zero values within 90 min after DCMU addition, when C_2H_4 production was still at 35% of its initial value (Fig. 5, b and d). The change in light intensity from 50 to 300 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ had no effect on net H_2 production, despite the increased rates of C_2H_4 production. Replicate analysis of the DCMU-manipulation experiments on independent cultures also showed a temporary increase in C_2H_4 production in response to an increasing light level. However, in this instance, the increase was more transient, lasting ~ 30 min before resuming its downward trend (Fig. 5c).

A similar pattern of a transient increase in C_2H_4 production in the presence of DCMU was observed after removing the O_2 from the incubation vessel (Fig. 6), causing an almost 2-fold increase in C_2H_4 production before it resumed a gradual decline. The rate of this decline was slowed 3-fold compared to aerobic conditions, reaching a final concentration of 2.9 $\text{nmol C}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ before the lights were switched off and C_2H_4 production was terminated (Fig. 6a). A repeat of the experiment saw an increase in C_2H_4 production and a subsequent stabilization before the lights were switched off (Fig. 6c). Once again, no net H_2 production was observed during the transient increase in C_2H_4 production in response to aerobic conditions.

The artificial manipulation of the PQ redox state by the incremental addition of 0.5 μM DBMIB aliquots under 50 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ affected both C_2H_4 and net H_2 production (Fig. 7). The results from replicating this experiment on a separate occasion are in the supplementary material (Fig. S2). With DBMIB concentrations increasing to 1.0 μM and the level of PQ pool reduction reaching 50%, the C_2H_4 production decreased from an initial level of 13 $\text{nmol C}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ to 10 $\text{nmol C}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ while the net H_2 production increased from 0.8 to 0.94 $\text{nmol H}_2 \cdot \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$,

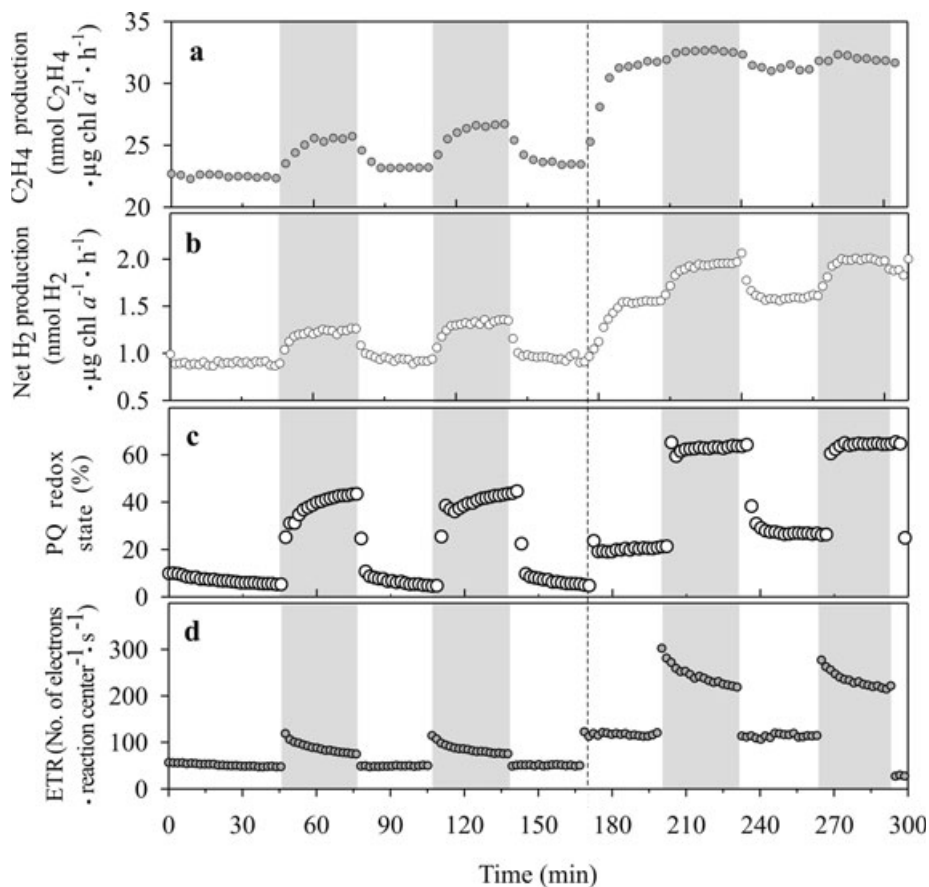


FIG. 4. Effect of altering the spectral quality on (a) C_2H_4 production, (b) net H_2 production, (c) the redox state of the plastoquinone pool, and (d) the electron transport rate, for *Trichodesmium*. The shaded boxes indicate when the cells were exposed to green light (512 nm). At all other times, the cells were maintained under blue light (470 nm). The time point when the light intensity is increased from 100 to 300 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ is indicated by the dashed line.

in proportion to the level of PQ pool reduction. The subsequent increases in DBMIB concentration further reduced the PQ pool to 70% and caused a continual decrease in C_2H_4 production but reversed the trend of net H_2 production.

DISCUSSION

The $H_2:N_2$ ratio can be interpreted as a measure of the metabolic efficiency associated with nitrogenase activity (Schubert and Evans 1976). In laboratory cultures of *Trichodesmium*, maintained at 26°C and 50 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, the $H_2:N_2$ ratio ranges from 0.2 to 0.3 (Fig. 1), which is comparable to values measured for heterocystous cyanobacteria (Masukawa et al. 2001), but two orders of magnitude greater than observed in unicellular cyanobacterium *Crocospaera watsonii* (Wilson et al. 2010b). We hypothesize that the difference between the $H_2:N_2$ ratios associated with *crocospaera* and *Trichodesmium* reflects the availability of light-derived energy during the time frame when nitrogenase is active. When photosynthesis and N_2 fixation overlap

on a temporal basis, there is less demand for the electrons resulting from H_2 oxidation, causing greater net H_2 production and therefore a higher $H_2:N_2$ ratio. A series of short-term manipulation experiments revealed the relationship between H_2 production and N_2 fixation as it relates to the cycling of electrons through the PQ pool in *Trichodesmium*.

Effect of light intensity on C_2H_4 production and net H_2 production. The patterns of diazotrophic responses to light in *Trichodesmium* are strongly controlled by the growth irradiance regime. In cells grown at 50 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, nitrogenase activity saturates at 200 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. This value is slightly higher than that previously observed for different strains of *Trichodesmium* (e.g., Ohki and Fujita 1988, Bell and Fu 2005). An increase in growth irradiance to 500 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ shifts the saturation level beyond this level within just few days of high-light acclimation (Fig. 3a). The saturation of nitrogenase activity prior to the saturation of photosynthetic electron transport (Fig. 2a) has been attributed to the inhibition of nitrogenase by O_2

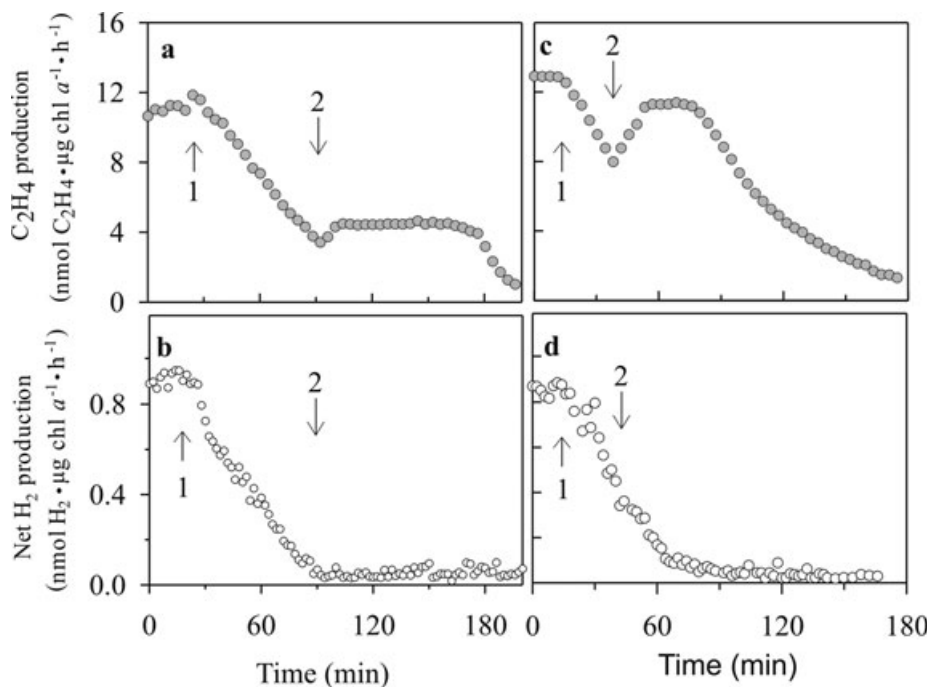


FIG. 5. Effect of DCMU (final concentration $1 \mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) on (a) C_2H_4 production and (b) net H_2 production by *Trichodesmium*. The addition of DCMU is highlighted (arrow 1) and the light intensity was increased from 50 to $300 \mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ after 90 min (arrow 2). This experiment was repeated using an independent culture of *Trichodesmium* on a separate occasion as shown by (c) C_2H_4 production and (d) net H_2 production. DCMU, 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea.

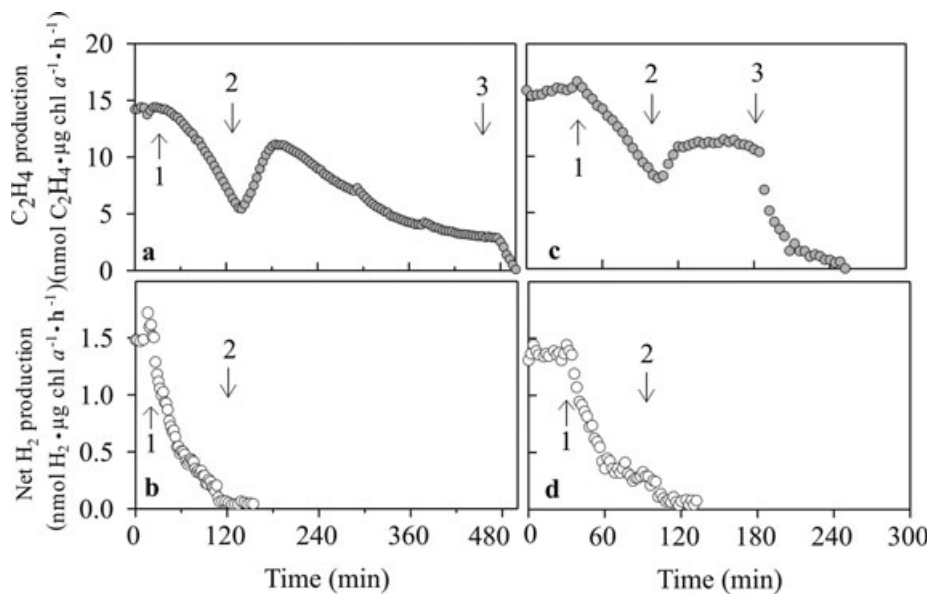


FIG. 6. Effect of DCMU (final concentration $1 \mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) on (a) C_2H_4 production and (b) net H_2 production by *Trichodesmium*. The addition of DCMU (arrow 1), the removal of O_2 supply (arrow 2), and switching off the lights (arrow 3) are highlighted. This experiment was repeated using an independent culture of *Trichodesmium* on a separate occasion as shown by (c) C_2H_4 production and (d) net H_2 production. DCMU, 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea.

resulting from increased photosynthetic activity at high-light levels (Paerl 1994). Herein we show that nitrogenase can respond to a 44% increase in the electron transport rate (Fig. 3b) in cells acclimated

to higher light levels. The higher rate of nitrogenase activity appears to correlate with the higher turnover rate of photosynthetic electron transport. In addition to elevated rates of the linear and cyclic

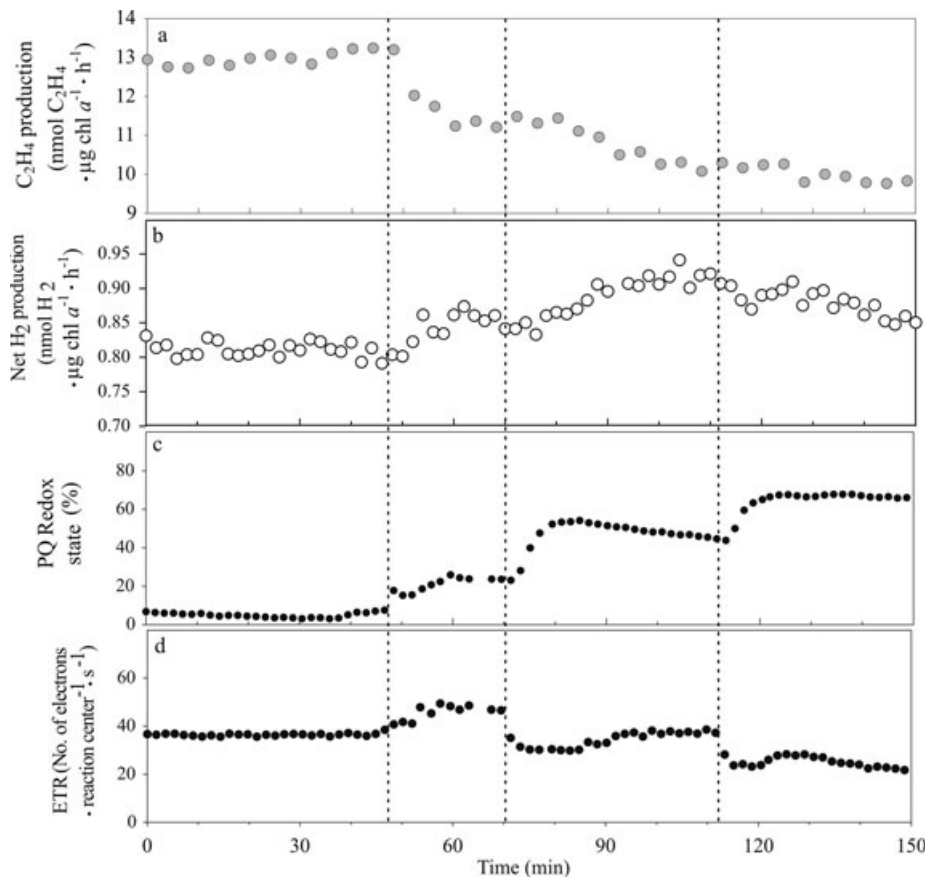


FIG. 7. Effect of incremental additions of the inhibitor DBMIB ($0.5 \mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) on (a) C_2H_4 production, (b) H_2 production, (c) the redox state of the plastoquinone pool, and (d) the electron transport rate, for *Trichodesmium*. The dashed lines indicate the time points when DBMIB was added. DBMIB, 2,5-dibromo-3-methyl-6-isopropyl-p-benzoquinone.

electron transport, this may also reflect increased activity of the Mehler reaction, where the water-derived electrons are used to reduce O_2 at the acceptor side of PSI, thus alleviating the negative effects of increased O_2 production at the water-splitting site of PSII (Kana 1993). It has previously been shown that *Trichodesmium* grown at $200 \mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ has O_2 uptake rates 2- to 3-fold higher than *Trichodesmium* cells grown at $50 \mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (Kranz et al. 2010).

Both the low-light- and the high-light-grown cultures of *Trichodesmium* displayed two phases of C_2H_4 production and the net production of H_2 as a function of light intensity. This two-phase pattern was most pronounced in the low-light-grown culture, with the C_2H_4 production saturating completely at a $200 \mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. Although the slope of the net production of H_2 changed abruptly at this light level, H_2 production continued to rise as the light increased to $1,000 \mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 2a). The continuing increase in net H_2 production under conditions of leveled nitrogenase activity may be attributed to a decrease in the re-assimilation of H_2 , coinciding with an increase in PQ reduction (Fig. 2b). This may indicate that net H_2

production is affected by the redox state of the PQ pool, whereby the ability of the PQ pool to accept H_2 -derived electrons from uptake hydrogenase decreases as it becomes progressively reduced. A similar pattern is observed in the high-light-grown cells, although in this case the saturation level of nitrogenase activity, and the corresponding change in the slope of H_2 production, shifts to $\sim 350 \mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$.

Effect of spectral irradiance on net H_2 production. The effect of light was further demonstrated by varying the spectral composition of ambient light. At $100 \mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ when nitrogenase activity is light limited, switching from blue to green light resulted in an increased C_2H_4 production (Fig. 4a). This increase is due to the differences in light-harvesting ability of *Trichodesmium*-specific photosynthetic pigments at different wavelengths. Green light is absorbed specifically by phycoerythrin with high efficiency of excitation capture and transfer from phycobilisomes to PSII and PSI (Campbell 1996). Blue light is predominantly absorbed by chl *a*, which constitutes only a small fraction of the light-harvesting pigments in *Trichodesmium* (Stanier and Cohen-Bazire 1977). The functional absorption

cross-section measured under blue light $\sigma_{\text{PSII}}(470)$ averaged $\sim 105 \text{ \AA}^2 \cdot \text{q}^{-1}$, and under green light $\sigma_{\text{PSII}}(530)$ averaged at $\sim 200 \text{ \AA}^2 \cdot \text{q}^{-1}$. As the blue light at $100 \text{ \mu mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ is insufficient to saturate nitrogenase activity, switching from blue to green light at this light level increases rates of both the C_2H_4 production and H_2 production by a fraction roughly proportional to the $\sigma_{\text{PSII}}(530)/\sigma_{\text{PSII}}(470)$.

In contrast, at $300 \text{ \mu mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ the switch from blue light to green light has no effect on C_2H_4 production by *Trichodesmium* due to the fact that nitrogenase activity is already saturated under the blue light. However, switching from blue to green light at $300 \text{ \mu mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ increased the level of PQ pool reduction by 2-fold (Fig. 4c) due to the higher flux of photosynthetic electrons (Fig. 4d) with concomitant increase in the net H_2 production (Fig. 4b). The higher level of PQ pool reduction under these conditions is likely to decrease the ability of PQ pool to accept electron from the uptake hydrogenase resulting in higher rates of H_2 lost to the environment.

In addition to the importance of H_2 cycling at the cellular level, the cycling of H_2 can also be considered in relation to N_2 fixation in the marine environment. The results from the spectral manipulation experiments indicate that the rates of net H_2 production by *Trichodesmium* within the upper water column (0–75 m) may be elevated relative to N_2 fixation as a result of both the higher light intensity and the greater contribution of longer wavelengths (green light) of the available light. At the moment, there is only limited evidence from the field-based measurements of either dissolved H_2 concentrations or N_2 fixation in open-ocean surface seawater to support this hypothesis. Depth profiles of N_2 fixation, as measured by $^{15}\text{N}_2$ assimilation, at Station ALOHA ($22^\circ 45' \text{ N}$, 158° W) frequently show a decrease in $^{15}\text{N}_2$ assimilation rates at a depth 75 m (Church et al. 2009) where light levels are $\sim 70 \text{ \mu mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. It remains to be seen whether the decrease in N_2 fixation at this depth results from light limitation of nitrogenase as indicated by the findings of our study. Furthermore, vertical profiles of dissolved H_2 concentrations (e.g., Conrad and Seiler 1988) do not reveal a consistent increase from a depth of 75 m toward the surface. However, it should also be noted that an absence of any gradient in H_2 concentrations in the upper 75 m might also result from the rate of H_2 turnover increasing proportional to the rate of H_2 production (Conrad 1988), and to our knowledge, rates of H_2 consumption have not been measured in the open ocean.

Net H_2 production and N_2 fixation during limited supply of water-derived electrons. The ability of *Trichodesmium* to fix N_2 during daylight provides nitrogenase with both photosynthetic and respiratory-derived electrons and energy. However, to protect the nitrogenase from the adverse effects of photosynthesis-derived

O_2 , a large portion of the photosynthetically produced electrons are utilized to reduce O_2 in a Mehler reaction (Kana 1993, Berman-Frank et al. 2001, Milligan et al. 2007). On the other hand, electrons derived from the oxidation of organic carbon are available without any associated “ O_2 contamination.” Respiratory-driven N_2 fixation has been reported previously (Ohki and Fujita 1988), and its persistence appears to be extended under anaerobic conditions (Berman-Frank et al. 2001, and this study). As light is required to sustain N_2 fixation in *Trichodesmium* cells, respiratory electrons are driven from PQ pool to ferredoxin by the photosynthetic activity of PSI to provide the reducing power required for nitrogenase activity (Fig. 8). A fraction of these electrons may also be recycled around PSI to satisfy the substantial energy requirements of N_2 fixation. The gradual decrease in C_2H_4 production in the presence of DCMU reflects the progressive depletion of the pool of respiratory electrons toward N_2 reduction. This depletion will also degrade the ability of PSI to support the energy requirements for C_2H_4 production. These two effects will eventually bring N_2 fixation to an end within a time frame defined by the capacity of the respiratory electron pool and by the current rate of N_2 fixation, which in turn is influenced by the irradiance level. The transient surge observed in C_2H_4 production following the increase in light intensity (Fig. 5, a and c) may reflect nitrogenase response to higher energy flux due to a faster turnover of the remaining respiratory electron pool around PSI under elevated light levels of $300 \text{ \mu mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. In addition, a higher light level is likely to produce a more oxidized condition at the donor side of PSI, diverting some of the respiratory electrons from the terminal cytochrome oxidase pathway toward the PSI-ferredoxin-nitrogenase pathway, satisfying the increased demand for reducing equivalents (Fig. 8). The redirection of electrons from cytochrome oxidase to nitrogenase also explains the transient increase that was observed in C_2H_4 production following removal of O_2 in the presence of DCMU (Fig. 6a). Switching off the light resulted in an immediate termination of C_2H_4 production revealing that respiratory electrons enter the ferredoxin-nitrogenase pathway via light-driven action of PSI.

Although the level of PQ pool reduction cannot be monitored in presence of DCMU using FRRF, we assume that it remains low due to an absence of electron flux from PSII. According to our previous observations concerning the PQ redox state and net H_2 production (Fig. 2), these conditions should promote effective utilization of electrons from the uptake hydrogenase. Indeed, the net H_2 production relative to C_2H_4 production decreased progressively in presence of DCMU, ceasing 110 min prior to cessation of C_2H_4 production (Fig. 5b), supporting this notion. Furthermore, the increase in light levels

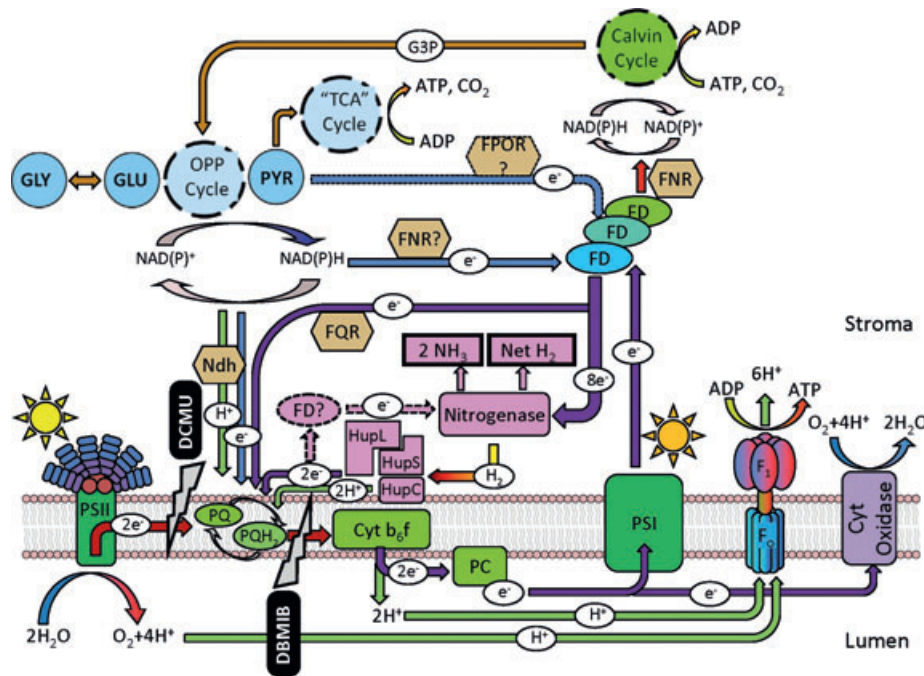


Fig. 8. Photosynthetic and respiratory electron transport pathways relevant for N_2 fixation and H_2 evolution in *Trichodesmium erythraeum*. Light-driven charge separation in PSII results in oxidation of water and subsequent reduction of plastoquinone (PQ) pool ($PQ \rightarrow PQH_2$). PQ pool is reoxidized by cytochrome b_6/f (Cyt b_6/f), transferring the electrons to PSI via plastocyanine (PC), where a second light-driven mechanism transfers the electrons to ferredoxin (FD), initiating NAD(P) reduction by ferredoxin:NAD(P) oxidoreductase (FNR). Water-derived protons accumulating in the lumen activate ATP synthetase (F_0F_1), and the acquired reducing equivalents and ATP drive carbon fixation in the Calvin cycle. The product of the carbon fixation, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate (G3P), enters the oxidative pentose phosphate (OPP) cycle branching to the carbon storage and carbon metabolism pathways. The reducing equivalents extracted from OPP cycle by NAD(P)H enter the PQ pool cycle by the action of NAD(P) dehydrogenase (Ndh), contributing to both photosynthetic electron transport via PSI and to respiratory electron transport terminating on cytochrome oxidase. A fraction of the reduced ferredoxin pool recirculates its electrons back into the PQ pool by the action of ferredoxin:quinone oxidoreductase (FQR) in a process of light-driven cyclic electron transport around PSI, while shuffling the protons from the stroma back into the lumen, reenergizing the ATP-producing machinery. Another fraction of the reduced ferredoxin supports nitrogenase activity by supplying electrons to the Fe protein of the nitrogenase complex. The evolved hydrogen is oxidized by the uptake hydrogenase (HupL, HupS, and HupC), with electrons reintroduced to the PSI-driven electron transport chain, and the protons transferred to lumen, resupplying the reducing power and energy. DCMU blocks the flow of water-derived electrons into PQ pool and eliminates PSII contribution to ATP generation but does not interrupt the flow of respiratory electrons. DBMIB blocks the reoxidation of the PQ pool, interrupting both the photosynthetic and the respiratory electron flow. DBMIB, 2,5-dibromo-3-methyl-6-isopropyl-p-benzoquinone; DCMU, 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea.

after 90 min did not produce a corresponding increase in H_2 production (Fig. 5, b and d), which usually accompanies changes in the level of C_2H_4 production. We hypothesize that the increased demand for the electrons by nitrogenase, combined with decreasing pool of respiratory electrons, poises the PQ pool at an oxidized state, which is indicative of a shortage of reducing power and/or energy at the acceptor side of PSI. These conditions raise the overall efficiency of H_2 utilization with the consequence of little or no net H_2 production being observed. Nevertheless, a complete cessation of the net H_2 production under conditions of still-present C_2H_4 production, and lack of H_2 response to transient stimulation of C_2H_4 production by increased light intensity (Fig. 5) or removal of oxygen (Fig. 6) raises the question of whether the PQ pool is the sole acceptor for the hydrogenase-produced hydrogen. It is also necessary to remember that the cultures were not axenic, and an additional microbial

sink for the dissolved H_2 may have been opportunistic H_2 -oxidizing bacteria.

Effects of DBMIB-modulated changes of PQ redox state on net H_2 production. A different outcome to that obtained with DCMU addition was observed in the presence of DBMIB. The gradual addition of DBMIB caused a progressive reduction of the PQ pool under constant irradiance level, resulting in a proportional decline in the supply of electrons to the acceptor side of PSI, negatively affecting both the cyclic electron transport around PSI (whether fueled by the water-derived, or respiratory-derived, electrons) and the supply of electrons to ferredoxin-nitrogenase pathway (Fig. 8). The diminishing energy production coupled with lower flux of reducing equivalents explains the decline in C_2H_4 production. At the same time, as the PQ pool became progressively reduced, its ability to accept electrons from uptake hydrogenase decreases, resulting in a transient increase in net H_2 production. This trend,

consistent with all the previous observations, reversed when inhibitor concentrations exceeded $1 \mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ and the PQ pool reduction level reached 40% to 50% (Fig. 7b). Additional PQ pool reduction above this level caused a decrease in net H_2 production concomitant with the decrease in C_2H_4 production. The decrease in net H_2 production as a function of DBMIB-induced PQ pool reduction can be explained by the fact that the net H_2 production is controlled by both the nitrogenase-driven production of H_2 and its assimilation by the uptake hydrogenase. During the first phase of the experiment, the decrease in assimilation rates exceeds the loss of production, resulting in a transient increase of the net H_2 production. At increasing concentrations of DBMIB an overall decline in the net H_2 level is observed as a result of decreasing net H_2 production due to decreased nitrogenase activity.

CONCLUSIONS

Our observations reveal a clear relationship between H_2 production, N_2 fixation, and the level of PQ pool reduction in *Trichodesmium*. They also demonstrate that in *Trichodesmium* the N_2 -fixation process can operate exclusively using the respiratory electrons in the presence of DCMU but requires light to move them along the PSI-ferredoxin pathway. When both PSII and PSI are fully engaged in the light, the flux of water-derived photosynthetic electrons continuously replenishes the pools of respiratory carbon via the process of carbon fixation (Fig. 8) even though a significant fraction of these electrons may be dissipated in O_2 -consuming Mehler reaction (Berman-Frank et al. 2001). We hypothesize that the relatively high H_2 : N_2 ratio observed in *Trichodesmium* is a measure of an excess of reducing equivalents relative to nitrogenase requirements that can be released without adversely affecting nitrogenase activity under conditions of continuous electron supply from photosynthesis. The excess of reducing power becomes increasingly pronounced at irradiance levels above of $\sim 200 \mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (Ohki and Fujita 1988, Bell and Fu 2005, this study). The bidirectional hydrogenase enzyme has been shown to act as an electron release valve during photosynthesis in the cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* (Appel et al. 2000). Although the biological production of H_2 has long been recognized as a biochemical mechanism to regulate electron flow and release "excess" electrons in anaerobic microorganisms (Gray and Gest 1965), the relatively high level of H_2 production observed in this study as compared with *Crocospaera* (Wilson et al. 2010b) may indicate that the nitrogenase requirements for the reducing power are fully satisfied under normal physiological conditions. These conditions change dramatically following addition of DCMU, where progressive shortage of reducing power induces

more efficient reutilization of the nitrogenase-produced electrons. It remains to be resolved what metabolic pathways are involved in this process and what factors control these pathways. It is possible that the activity of the uptake hydrogenase may be up-regulated under conditions of electron shortage. Alternatively, the mechanisms of proton binding and H_2 release from nitrogenase may change under condition of progressively oxidized Fe protein or the nitrogenase-serving ferredoxin.

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Supplementary Material

The following supplementary material is available for this article:

Fig. S1. Replicate analysis of the spectral irradiance experiment (Fig. 4) showing the effect of altering the spectral quality on (a) C₂H₄ production, (b) net H₂ production, (c) the redox state of the plastoquinone (PQ) pool, and (d) the electron transport rate (ETR), for *Trichodesmium*.

Fig. S2. Replicate analysis of the DBMBI manipulation (Fig. 7) showing the effect of incremental additions of the inhibitor DBMBI (0.5 μmol · L⁻¹) on (a) C₂H₄ production, (b) H₂ production, (c) the redox state of the plastoquinone (PQ) pool, and (d) the electron transport rate (ETR), for *Trichodesmium*.

The material is available as part of the online article.

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